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# LOW-DISCREPANCY POINT SETS IN TRANSPORT CODES

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## ABSTRACT

A drawback to Monte Carlo methods of computation is its rate of convergence. There are methods of sampling that have a better error estimate than those using random numbers. This paper gives the result of some preliminary experiments with these sampling methods on two neutron transport problems.

#### LOW-DISCREPANCY POINT SETS IN TRANSPORT CODES

The Monte Carlo method is useful in solving a variety of problems such as: the evaluation of multiple integrals, the solution of linear equations, the simulation of particle transport, and the simulation of thermodynamical systems. The only drawback to Monte Carlo computations is its rather slow rate of convergence, that is, the estimated error depends on 1/SQRT(N) where N is the number of trials made.

There are methods of sampling which have a better error estimate. These methods have been used for multidimensional integrational, but they have not found much application in other areas. This paper gives the results of some experiments with these sampling methods on neutron transport problems.

One measure of the sampling efficiency of a set of points is the discrepancy. Fig. 1. illustrates the idea in two dimensions. The <u>local discrepancy</u> of a point (x,y) in the unit square is given by the expression:

$$g(x,y) = V(x,y)/N - xy$$

where

V(x,y) = the number of points inside the rectangle extending from the origin to the point (x,y).

A global measure of the uneveness of the points can be given by a norm of g(x,y) taken over the unit square. A random sequence has discrepancy proportional to 1/SCRT(N). There exist sets of points, called quasi-random, with discrepancy lower than this. There are methods of sampling which have a better error estimate. Two such sequences are used in these experiments. Figure 2 shows the difference in a random sequence (from a random number generator) and a quasi-random sequence. An intuitive appreciation for the intersal efficiency of the quasi-random sequence can be obtained from Figs. 3-6. Figure 3 shows one point with lines parallel to the coordinate axes drawn through it. These lines divide the square into four rectangles. A random sequence would but the next point in a given rectangle with a probability proportional to the area of the rectangle. A quasi-random sequence always puts the next point in the biggest (or one of the biggest if there are several) rectangles. This effect is shown in Figs. 4-6.

As quasi-random sequences are more complicated to compute than pseudomandom sequences, it is not easy to use them in a general purpose Monte Carlo transport code. These sequences may be used for generating source parameters with-

out much overhead, however. A version of the code MNCP<sup>2</sup> was used with the source distributions generated with quasi-random sequences. Two problems were run as a computational experiment.

The first problem is shown in Fig. 7. It is a bent concrete pipe with a 14 MeV isotropic neutron source in one end. The quantity measured was the flux through the other end. On this problem, not much difference could be seen between the runs with a random number generator and those with the quasi-random sequences. Figures 8-10 show plots of the mean, relative error, and figure-of-merit vs the number of particles run using a random number generator. (the figure-of-merit is defined to be the reciprocal of the sample variance times the time used. For a truly random process, this number should be constant.) The corresponding graphs are shown for two different quasi-random sequences used for source sampling in Figs. 11-16. There is not much difference among the graphs at least showing that the quasi-random sequences do not cause trouble with a well-behaved problem.

The second problem is shown in Fig. 17. The object is a top-hat shaped structure of concrete. The (not very realistic) densities are 10 g/cc and 20 g/cc in the bottom and top central cylinders, respectively. The first low-r ring has a density of .5 g/cc and the outer ring 2 g/cc. The upper cylinder is ringed by a void. A  $1^{\mu}$  MeV isotropic neutron source is placed at the bottom of the object and the flux through the top central surface is measured.

Figure 18 shows the mean flux through the top cylinder plotted vs the number of particles using a random number generator for the source sampling. When 65,000 particles were run, the mean began to increase to about 10% of its apparantly stable value. The plot of estimated error, Fig. 19, shows the error suddenly doubling. The figure-of-ment plot in Fig. 0 is ever more striking, showing a collapse in reliability around 70,000 particles.

Using one of the quasi-rendom sequences, Firs. 21-13 were obtained. The collapse in the figure-of-merit happens about 20,000 points (Fig. 23.). It seems that whatever caused the instability of the problem was exposed much sooner by using the quasi-random points. The relative error seems better than that using the random number generator but the small figure-of-merit indicates that neither result is extremely reliable.

Another quasi-random sequence was tried giving the results shown in Figs. 24-26. The sequence has some well-known structure and this is reflected in the results. Still, the collapse of the figure-of-ment happens around .0,000 particles rather than around 70,000 as with the random sequence.

On the basis of these experiments, it seems that using quasi-mandom sequences do not introduce any new problems into transport computations; however, they can be useful in guarding against "bad luck" as in the second problem.

The first sequence used is defined by taking the Nth point as the fractional part of N $^{\#}$ SQRT(2) for the X coordinate and the fractional part of N $^{\#}$ SQRT(3) for the Y coordinate.

The second sequence is based on the Halton sequence.  $^3$  Some modifications based on the ideas of.  $^4$  For a prime P, define S(P) to be the nearest integer to P times the fractional part of SQRT(P). The Nth term of the sequence is given by the prescription:

- 1. Write N in base P.
- 2. Reverse the Phary digits.
- 3. Multiply each digit (modulo P) by S(P).
- 4. Treat the result as a base P fraction.

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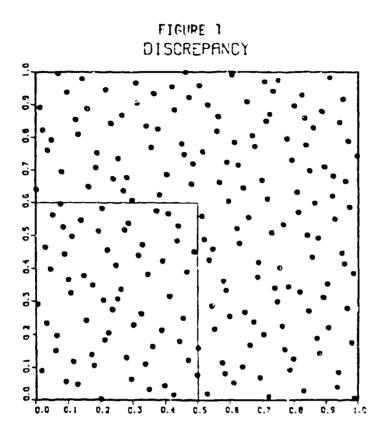
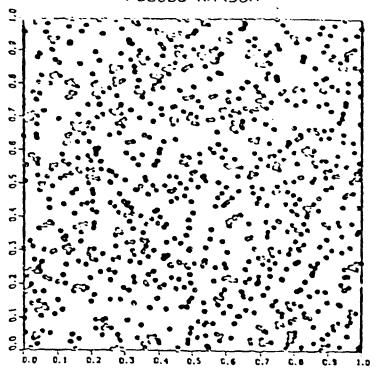
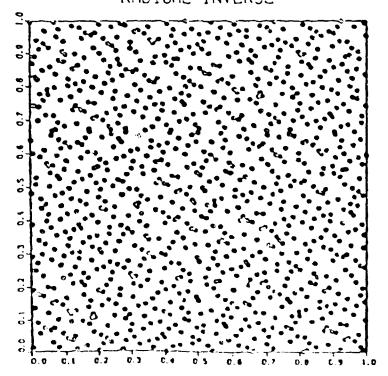


FIGURE 2 PSEUDG-RANDOM



# RADICAL INVERSE



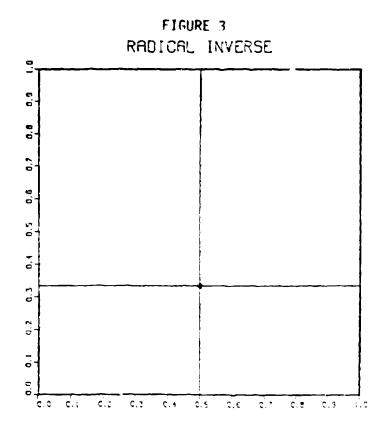


FIGURE 4
RADICAL INVERSE

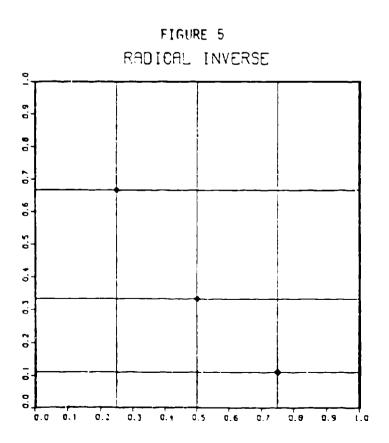
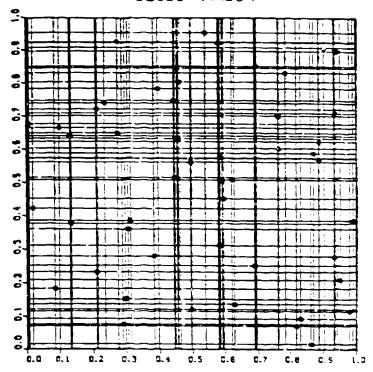
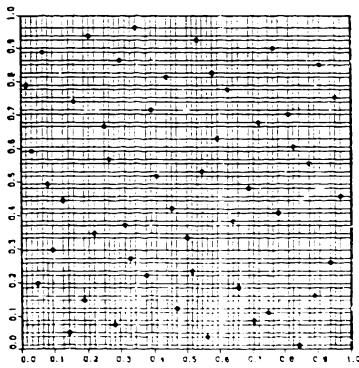
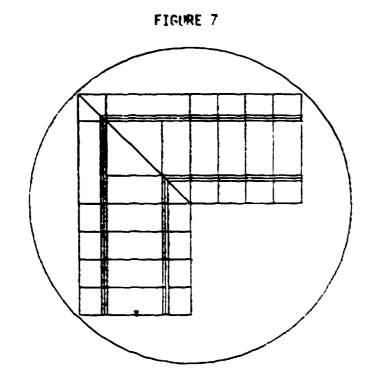


FIGURE 6 PSEUDO-RANDOM



RADICAL INVERSE





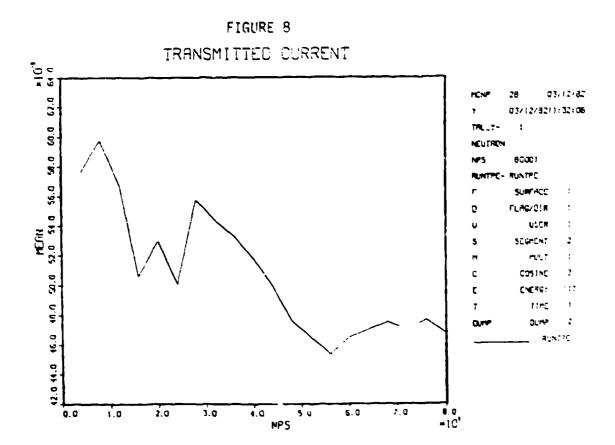


FIGURE 9 TRANSMITTED CURRENT

03/12/92

03/12/8211/32106

80001

SURFACE FLASZDIR

SEGMENT

COSTNE ENEPGr TINC

RUNTPE

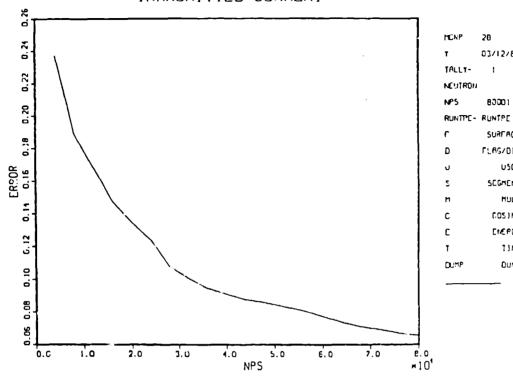


FIGURE 10

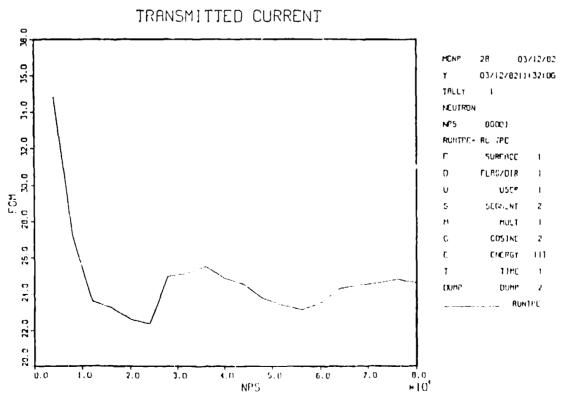


FIGURE 11
TRANSMITTED CURRENT

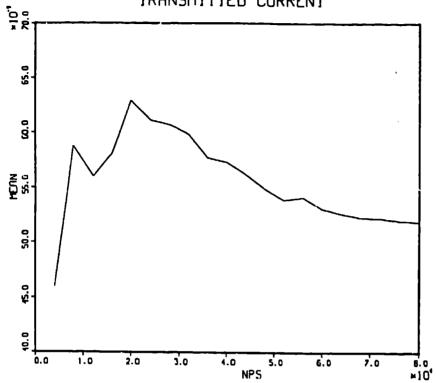




FIGURE 12
TRANSMITTED CURRENT

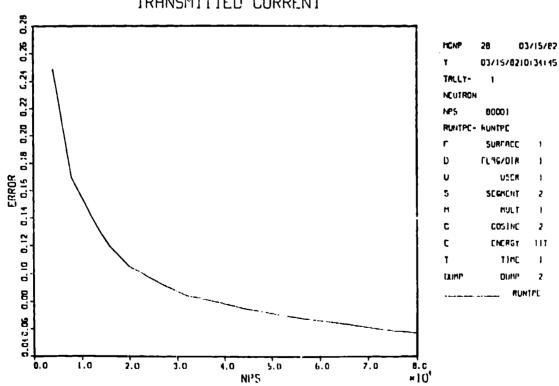


FIGURE 13
TRANSMITTED CURRENT

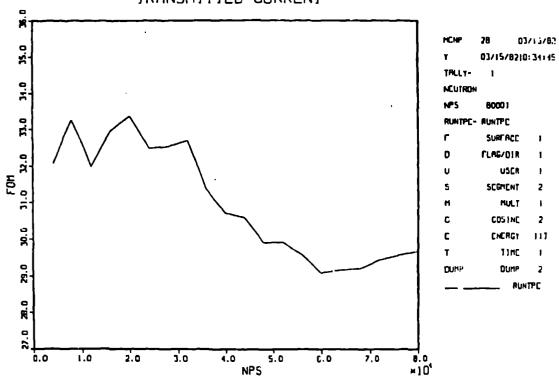
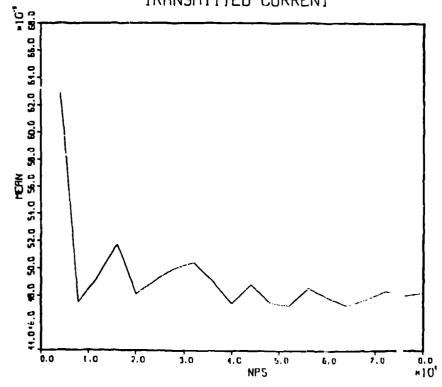


FIGURE 14
TRANSMITTED CURRENT



| 28      | 03/12/82  |
|---------|---|
| 03/12/8 | 210143130   |
| ı       |   |
|         |   |
| 80001   |   |
| RUNTPE  |   |
| SURFINC | C 1   |
| FLAG/DI | R I   |
| บริต    | R 1   |
| SEGMEN  | T 2   |
| HUL     | r i   |
| COSIN   | C 2   |
| CACAG   | T 117   |
| HLT     | С 1   |
| DUM     | r 2   |
| RUN1P(* |   |
|         | 03/12/8 1 80001 RUNTPE SURFACE FLAG/01 USC SEGMEN MUL COSIN CASER TIM DUM |

FIGURE 15

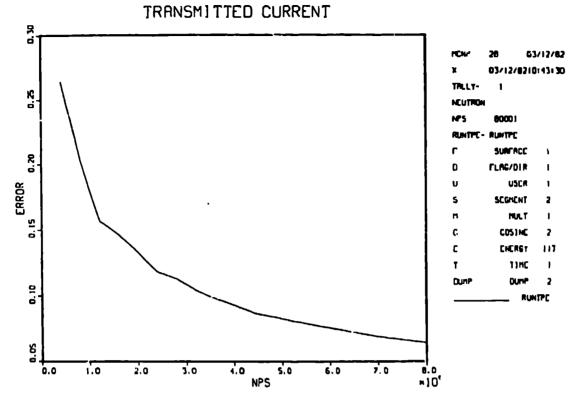


FIGURE 16
TRANSMITTED CURRENT

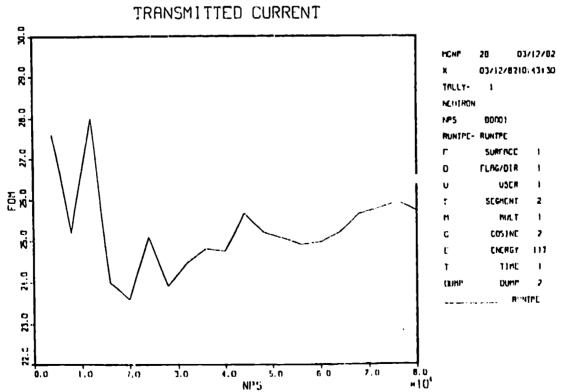
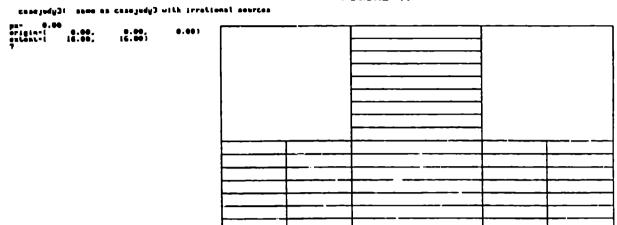


FIGURE 17



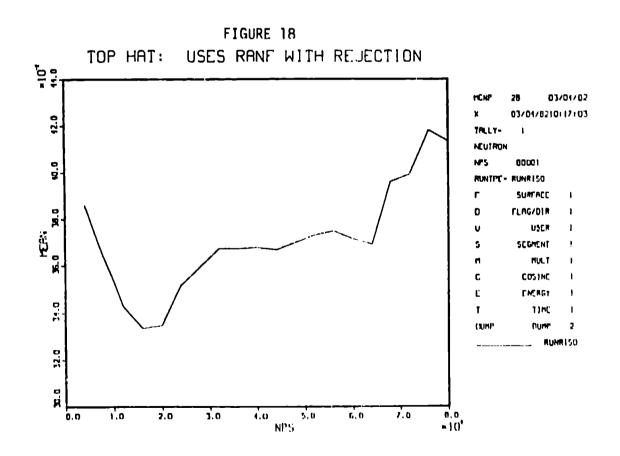


FIGURE 19
TOP HAT: USES RANF WITH REJECTION

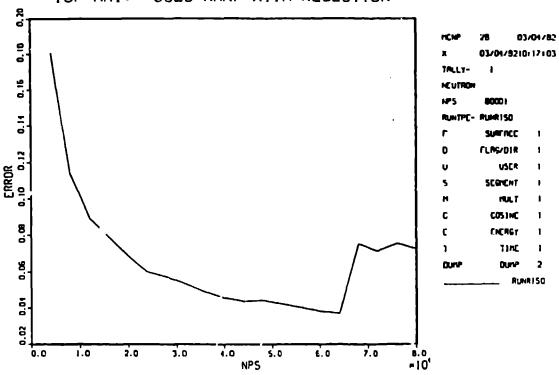


FIGURE 20
TOF HAT: USES RANF WITH REJECTION

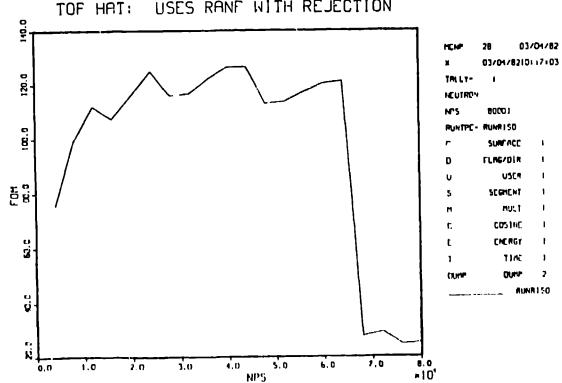


FIGURE 21
TOP HAT: WITH RADICAL INVERSE SOURCE

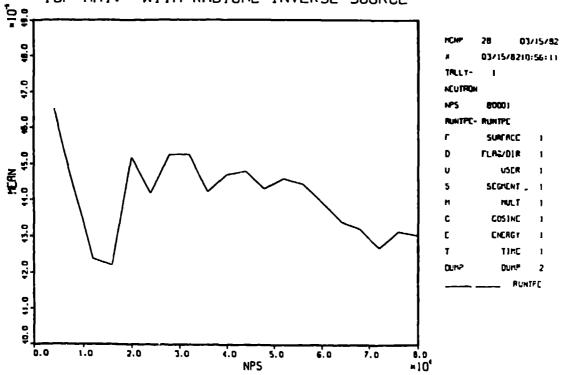
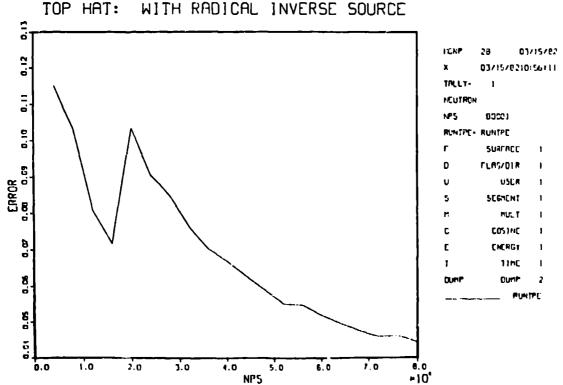
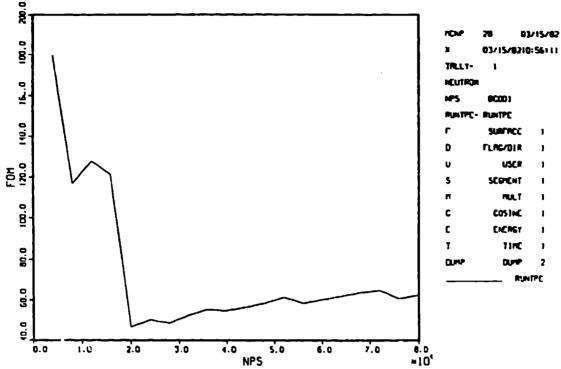
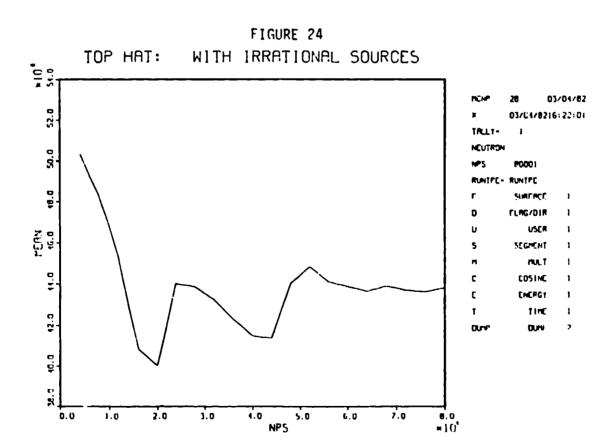


FIGURE 22
TOP HAT: WITH RADICAL INVERSE SOURCE









WITH IRRATIONAL SOURCES TOP HAT: 0.24 03/04/82 0.2 03/04/8216:22:01 0.01 0,06 0,00 0,10 0,12 0,11 0,16 0,10 0,20 RLHIFE SCONINT ru, ī C ENERGY TIPE e.o =10 0.0 1.0 2.0 3.0 NP5

FIGURE 25

